



Early Journal Content on JSTOR, Free to Anyone in the World

This article is one of nearly 500,000 scholarly works digitized and made freely available to everyone in the world by JSTOR.

Known as the Early Journal Content, this set of works include research articles, news, letters, and other writings published in more than 200 of the oldest leading academic journals. The works date from the mid-seventeenth to the early twentieth centuries.

We encourage people to read and share the Early Journal Content openly and to tell others that this resource exists. People may post this content online or redistribute in any way for non-commercial purposes.

Read more about Early Journal Content at <http://about.jstor.org/participate-jstor/individuals/early-journal-content>.

JSTOR is a digital library of academic journals, books, and primary source objects. JSTOR helps people discover, use, and build upon a wide range of content through a powerful research and teaching platform, and preserves this content for future generations. JSTOR is part of ITHAKA, a not-for-profit organization that also includes Ithaka S+R and Portico. For more information about JSTOR, please contact support@jstor.org.

From some investigations effected by interchanging the symbols x and D in the solution of the general linear equation in finite differences of the first order, it would seem that definite summations may be used to represent the solutions of certain forms of equations. Thus a partial solution of

$$\varepsilon^{-x}.u - D^n u = c$$

is $c\Sigma(\Gamma z)^{n\varepsilon^z x}$ from $z = -\alpha$ to $z = 0$.

7. In attempting the solution of some equations by means of successive operations, not consisting exclusively of D combined with constants, but involving also functions of x , the only result which appeared to the author worthy of notice is the solution of

$$D^2 u + bDu + c^2 u - n(n+1) \frac{u}{\cos^2 x} = X;$$

from a particular case of which, the general solution of Laplace's equation,

$$\frac{d}{d\mu} \left((1-\mu^2) \frac{du}{d\mu} \right) + \frac{1}{1-\mu^2} \frac{d^2 u}{dy^2} + n(n+1).u = 0,$$

may be found in the simple form

$$u = \varepsilon^{\tan^{-1}(\mu \sqrt{-1})} \frac{d}{dy} \left(\frac{d}{d\mu} \right)^n \left\{ (1-\mu^2)^n \varphi(y - 2 \tan^{-1} \mu \sqrt{-1}) \right\},$$

with a similar function using $-\sqrt{-1}$ for $\sqrt{-1}$.

7. "Researches on the Function of the Intercostal Muscles and on the Respiratory Movements, with some remarks on Muscular Power, in Man." By John Hutchinson, M.R.C.S. Communicated by Sir Benjamin Brodie, Bart., F.R.S., &c.

The object of this paper is to demonstrate by models and dissections the action of the intercostal muscles.

After premising an account of the views of several eminent physiologists, and in particular those promulgated by Haller, the author shows that they resolve themselves into the general opinion that the scalene or other muscles of the neck fix the first rib, in order to enable the two sets of intercostal muscles to act either separately or conjointly, as inspiratory or expiratory muscles. He then proceeds to state the proofs that the intercostal muscles possess an action which is independent of any other muscle, and also independent of each other, so that any of the twelve ribs may be elevated or depressed by them either separately or conjointly. He demonstrates the nature of this action by means of models, producing oblique tensions between levers representing the ribs, and allowing of rotation on their centres of motion; and he shows that such tension in the direction of the external intercostal muscles, elevates both the levers until the tension ceases, or the position of the bars by proxi-

inly obstruct each other. If the tension be exerted in a contrary direction, as in the internal intercostal muscles, the bars are both depressed. This movement was demonstrated by a model. It was farther shown that two tensions decussating can, according to the position of the fulcra, be made to act as associates or antagonists to each other. Such motions are to be considered with reference to the fulcra, bars with one fulcrum common to each having no such action; and the author accordingly draws the following conclusions:—

1st. All the external intercostal muscles are true inspiratory muscles, elevators of the ribs, and with this act they dilate the intercostal spaces, thus increasing the cavity of the chest.

2nd. The internal intercostal muscles have a double action; the portions situated between the cartilages are associates in action with the external layer, and act as elevators of the cartilages, while the portion between the ribs are depressors, or antagonists of the external layer, and are here true expiratory muscles; with this they decrease the intercostal spaces.

3rd. These muscles can elevate or depress the ribs independently of any other muscle, fixing the first or last rib. Any one lamella, or series of muscles, can, as required, independently perform inspiration or expiration at any one of the twenty-two intercostal spaces.

4th. In inspiration, the intercostal spaces increase, with a shortening of the muscle; and in expiration, they decrease their perpendicular distance, with a shortening of the muscle.

5th. All parallel intercostal muscles, acting with uniform force, concur in the same effect, whether near the fulcrum or more distant from it, and these muscles gain power with their increasing obliquity as well as speed.

In the third part of the paper an account is given of the difference between the external thoracic space and the internal pulmonic space. The respiratory movements are described in health and disease, and it is shown that the chest is rarely enlarged at two places at one and the same time.

In conclusion the author conceives that he has established the following propositions:—

1st. Costal breathing may be distinguished from abdominal by determining which part is first put in motion, and the kind of respiration may be designated according to the name of such part.

2nd. Healthy costal breathing begins with the motion of a superior rib, which is followed by that of the lower ones in succession.

3rd. Ordinary respiration in men is abdominal, in women, costal; extraordinary breathing is the same in both sexes.

4th. Any of the ribs, from the twelfth to the first, may carry on respiration.

5th. Diseased respiration is of various kinds; the movements may be symmetric or not symmetric, costal or abdominal; all or none of the ribs may move; the abdomen may or may not move; the chest

may dilate in all its dimensions at one and the same time; costal and abdominal breathing may alternate with one another; costal motion may be undulating or not; and all these may be combined in one, which the author terms "*hesitating breathing*;" and lastly, the quantity of air breathed is diminished when there exists pulmonary disease.

8. "On the Structure and Development of the Liver." By C. Handfield Jones, M.B., Cantab. Communicated by Sir Benjamin C. Brodie, Bart., F.R.S., &c.

The author gives a detailed description of the structure of the liver in animals belonging to various classes of the animal kingdom. He states that in the Bryozoon, a highly organized polype, it is clearly of the follicular type; and that in the Asterias, the function of the liver is probably shared between the closed appendage of the stomach and the terminal cæca of the large ramifying prolongations of the digestive sac contained in the several rays. Among the Annulosa, the earthworm presents an arrangement of the elements of the hepatic organ, corresponding in simplicity with the general configuration of the body, a single layer of large biliary cells being applied as a kind of coating over the greater part of the intestinal canal. In another member of the same class, the Leech, in which the digestive cavity is much less simple, and presents a number of sacculi on each side, these elements have a very different disposition; and the secreting cells, although some remain isolated, for the most part coalesce to form tubes, having a succession of dilatations and constrictions, and finally uniting and opening into the intestine. In Insects, the usual arrangement is that of long curved filamentary tubes, which wind about the intestine; these, in the meat fly, are sacculated throughout the greater part of their course, till they arrive quite close to the pylorus, where they open; near their origin they appear to consist of separate vesicles, which become gradually fused together, but occasionally they are seen quite separate. The basement membrane of the tubes is strongly marked, and encloses a large quantity of granular matter of a yellowish tinge, with secreting cells; another portion of the liver consists of separate cells lying in a granular blastema, which cells, in a later stage of development, are seen to be included in vesicles or short tubes of homogeneous membrane, often coalescing and exhibiting a more or less manifestly plexiform arrangement; this portion of the liver is regarded by Mr. Newport as really adipose tissue. The author has termed it the *Parenchymatous portion* of the liver, on account of its general appearance and mode of development, though he has not been able to determine whether the tubes always originate from it. Among the Arachnida, the follicular type of arrangement prevails; and the same is the case with the Crustacea, the follicles in these last being distinctly visible to the naked eye. In Mollusca also, we find the follicular arrangement universally to obtain; yet in certain cases the limiting membrane of the follicles cannot be